



Early Journal Content on JSTOR, Free to Anyone in the World

This article is one of nearly 500,000 scholarly works digitized and made freely available to everyone in the world by JSTOR.

Known as the Early Journal Content, this set of works include research articles, news, letters, and other writings published in more than 200 of the oldest leading academic journals. The works date from the mid-seventeenth to the early twentieth centuries.

We encourage people to read and share the Early Journal Content openly and to tell others that this resource exists. People may post this content online or redistribute in any way for non-commercial purposes.

Read more about Early Journal Content at <http://about.jstor.org/participate-jstor/individuals/early-journal-content>.

JSTOR is a digital library of academic journals, books, and primary source objects. JSTOR helps people discover, use, and build upon a wide range of content through a powerful research and teaching platform, and preserves this content for future generations. JSTOR is part of ITHAKA, a not-for-profit organization that also includes Ithaka S+R and Portico. For more information about JSTOR, please contact support@jstor.org.

direct observation, and the induction which results from the combination of facts. The character of our age leads me to hope that the severe exactness of science and the precision of numerical statement, are no longer considered incompatible with the free play of thought. Science has revealed to us the traces of numerous revolutions which the globe has undergone. Disdaining the aberrations of a fantastic geology, science has opened, by the constant accumulation of observations, by the improved study of organic remains embedded in rock formations, new ways to penetrate into the depths of time and space. This is one of the great triumphs of human reason and of the manifestations of its power. The felicitous application of scientific methods, the more just appreciation of the relations which bind together all the phenomena and all the forces of nature, ought to exercise a beneficial influence on geographical studies, by extending the horizon they contemplate—on historical pursuits, by throwing light on the influence exercised by soils and climates—on the migrations of races—on physical investigation, by enabling us to generalize our views of the strata of the undulating atmospheric ocean, the earth which it embraces and impregnates, and the distribution of life from the snowy mountain-summits radiant with light, to the dark abysses of ocean.”

II.—*Elémens de l'Histoire du Genre Humain, avec Figures, Plans et Cartes géographiques d'après les Documens les plus récents.* Par M. DALLY, Professeur de Géographie et d'Histoire, &c. &c. Bruxelles, 1842. (Deux cahiers en 4.) [By the Editor.]

THIS publication is an attempt on the part of the author to produce a system of geography of which the classification and arrangement shall be deduced from the natural features of the globe, and which shall present a comprehensive and truthful portraiture of the superficies of the earth, calculated to render the leading events of universal history, and their connection with each other, more easily understood. It is the geographical introduction to a history of the human race.

This general view of geography is divided into three sections :—The first treats of the preliminary information, mathematical and physical, required by the student of systematic geography. This portion of the work admitted of little novelty, but it is characterised by lucid arrangement and neatness of finish in all its parts. The second section treats of the surface of the globe in general; and the third, of the old world in particular. It is in these that the author's peculiar views of the structure of the globe, and of a geographical nomenclature and classification, based upon its natural features, are developed and illustrated.

M. Dally, taking his station (hypothetically) at Behring's Straits, points out two great lines of elevation, winding and unequal, but with a mean direction, the one to the S.E., the other

to the S.W. The western line of elevation extends from Cape Prince of Wales ($174^{\circ} 30' \text{ E.}, 66^{\circ} 15' \text{ N.}$) to Cape Horn ($67^{\circ} 15' \text{ W.}, 55^{\circ} 58' \text{ N.}$); the eastern, from Cape Tshutskoi ($172^{\circ} 39' \text{ W.}, 65^{\circ} 33' \text{ N.}$) to the Cape of Good Hope ($18^{\circ} 28' \text{ E.}, 34^{\circ} 22' \text{ N.}$). A line bisecting the angle formed by these two, drawn to Cape Tasman ($147^{\circ} 25' \text{ E.}, 43^{\circ} 32' \text{ S.}$), runs through the broken and scattered elevations of Oceania to the extremity of the largest mass of what Humboldt terms the aquatic hemisphere. The two external lines M. Dally regards as the frame-work of the elevated solid surface of the globe—as the main pillars of the structure upon which all the rest depend. They furnish him, therefore, with his first grand division of the solid portion of the globe and also of the aqueous.

The eastern line of elevation, its lateral chains and declivities, constitute the old or long-known world. The central and western lines of elevation, together with the lands around the arctic and antarctic poles, constitute the new or more recently-discovered world. Two of these five masses (or groups) are subdivided by intersecting seas into minor masses. Hence it happens that there are eight parts of the solid surface of the earth, each of which may be considered as in itself a whole: in the old world, the three coherent masses of Europe, Asia, and Africa; in the new, the two coherent masses of North and South America, and the groups of Oceania, and the Arctic and Antarctic lands.

Retaining his station at Behring's Straits, M. Dally next directs his attention to the divisions of the ocean, as indicated by the outlines of the solid earth. The first divisions that occur to him as decidedly marked by natural features are the oceans that wash the arctic and antarctic regions; these he circumscribes by the polar circles. Two great oceans connect these extreme collections of waters: the Atlantic ocean, flowing like a river between Europe and Africa on the east, and the two Americas on the west; and the Pacific, similarly situated between Asia and Australia on the west, and the two Americas on the east. A third ocean originates at the southern shores of Asia, and extends southward between Africa on the west and Australia on the east. The polar oceans are, according to M. Dally, sharply defined by the polar circles. The three Mediterranean oceans are defined with equal precision at their northern extremities by the portions of the solid earth that separate them: advancing to the south they become confounded in one great watery zone. The southern points at which this fusion commences are—the Cape of Good Hope, Cape Tasman, and Cape Horn; and south of these points their meridians are taken as the lines of demarcation for the three oceans. M. Dally recognises two minor seas communicating with the Atlantic (the Mediterranean and the sea of the Antilles), and one

with the Indian Ocean (the Red Sea). It is difficult to conceive why the Baltic and the Persian Gulf have been omitted, except for the purpose of arbitrarily establishing eight oceanic divisions to correspond with the eight divisions of the solid earth. M. Dally's eight oceanic divisions are—the Arctic and the Antarctic oceans; the Atlantic, the Pacific, and the Indian oceans; and the three Mediterranean seas, the Red Sea, the sea of the Antilles, and the Mediterranean properly so called.

The third section contains a systematic review of the geography of the old world, arranged according to the opinions developed in the second. This third section is divided into three chapters: the first devoted to trace the general aspect of the old world with regard to its position and dimensions, its superficial forms, and its dependent island groups; the second, to the orography of the whole world; and the third, to its hydrography.

Under the head of orography, the different regions of the old world are classified and described in succession, by adhering to the hypothesis of a great central line of elevation extending from Behring's Straits to the Cape of Good Hope. This dorsal chain of the first order is traced along the Kentai, the In-shan, the Kun-luen, &c. In connection with this chain, the northern region of plains (Siberian and European) and the parallel region of deserts (Asiatic and African) to the S., are passed in review. The chains of elevations of the second order are those which, according to M. Dally, branch out at right angles, or nearly at right angles, to his great central range. To this class he reckons the lateral chains of China, the Himalayas, &c.; they are enumerated, first, those on the eastern, and then those on the western side of the great range, in their order from N. to S. The chains of the third order, at right angles to the second, are indicated, but not fully enumerated.

The hydrography of the old world is classified in an analogous manner: 1st, maritime basins; 2nd, lacustrine basins; 3rd, fluviatile basins. The grand ocean is the maritime basin of the first order: the maritime basins of the second and third order are arranged in a western and eastern division, and enumerated in their order from N. to S. The lacustrine basins are divided into five orders: little lakes, of 10 leagues in extent; middling, of 20 leagues; large, from 20 to 50 leagues; very large, from 50 to 100 leagues; and internal seas. The tabular arrangement of the first order is given as a specimen. A fluviatile basin comprehends the valleys of the main trunk and all its affluents; in the same way that a maritime or lacustrine basin comprehends the fluviatile basins of all its tributaries. A stream of water, the course of which is less than 50 leagues, is called a small watercourse; one from 50 to 100 leagues, a middling watercourse;

one from 100 to 300 leagues, a great; and if above that, a very great watercourse. A stream, of whatever size, which rises in the great central chain, or in an angle formed by it and a secondary chain, is called of the first order; one which rises in a secondary chain, or in an angle formed by it and a tertiary chain, of the second order; one which rises in a tertiary chain, of the third order. As in the case of the lacustrine basins, M. Dally merely gives, by way of specimen, a classified catalogue of the more important fluviatile basins of the first order.

This system of geographical classification and nomenclature, viewed merely as a technical aid to memory, an artificial framework in which every fact may find its place, is characterised by comprehensiveness and simplicity. Viewed with reference to geographical facts, it will be found to rest not unfrequently upon imaginary assumptions and unfounded analogies. Many of M. Dally's postulates regarding his central chains and their dependencies are at variance with the facts both of geology and geography. His 'Appendice Historique,' in which he briefly indicates the influence of geographical formation upon the progress of civilization, is still more open to this charge.

With all its defects, however, this work is an able and ingenious attempt to supply, what is at present the great desideratum in geography, an improved systematic arrangement and nomenclature. From its general character we should infer that the author's mind is elegant and accomplished, but that the imaginative preponderates over the reasoning faculty.
